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Analysis of steady state micro-droplet evaporation to enhance heat dissipation from tiny surfaces.

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ANALYSIS OF STEADY STATE MICRO-DROPLET EVAPORATION TO
ENHANCE HEAT DISSIPATION FROM TINY SURFACES

by

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M.S. University of Central Florida, 2015

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of Master of Science
in the Department of Mechanical and Aerospace Engineering
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Major Professor: Shawn A. Putnam

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ABSTRACT

Experimental investigations and numerical predictions of steady state microdroplet evaporation experiments are presented. Steady state droplet evaporation experiments are conducted to understand (1) Droplet contact line influence on evaporation rate efficiency, (2) Droplet contact angle correlation to evaporation rate and (3) Substrate cooling. Experiments are performed on a polymer substrate with a moat like trench (laser patterned) to control droplet contact line dynamics. A bottom-up methodology is implemented for droplet formation on the patterned substrate. Droplet evaporation rates on substrate temperatures $22^{\circ}\text{C} \leq \Delta T_{\text{Substrate}} \leq 75^{\circ}\text{C}$ and contact angles $80^{\circ} \leq \Theta \leq 110^{\circ}$ are measured. For a pinned microdroplet (CCR), volumetric infuse rate influences droplet contact angle. Results illustrate droplet contact line impact on evaporation rate. Moreover, these results coincide with previously published results and affirm that evaporation rate efficiency reduces with contact line depinning. Additionally, from all the analyzed experimental cases, evaporation rate scales proportional to the microdroplet contact angle (i.e. $\dot{m}_{LG} \propto \theta$). In conclusion, these experiments shed new light on steady state evaporation of a microdroplet and its corresponding observations. Vital research findings can be used to enhance heat dissipation from tiny surfaces.

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NOMENCLATURE

A	Area
h	Apex Height
\dot{m}_{evap}	Evaporation Rate
\dot{m}_{pump}	Syringe Pump Infuse Rate
R	Contact Radius
T_0	Setpoint Temperature
T_s	Substrate Temperature
t	Thickness
V	Volume
W	Watts

Greek

γ	Surface Tension
Δ	Difference/Change in
κ	Thermal Conductivity
θ	Contact Angle

Acronyms

CCA	Constant Contact Angle
CCR	Constant Contact Radius
DI	Deionized
IR	Infrared

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

A fundamental process like droplet evaporation which is widely observed in day to day life holds a pivotal role in many technical applications like DNA/RNA micro-array deposition [1, 2], inkjet printing [3, 4], cooling electronic devices [5–7], combustion [8, 9] and metrology [10, 11]. Rate of evaporation holds key for these application’s efficiency. A droplet evaporation rate is influenced by contact line dynamics[7, 12–14], substrate conductivity [15], vapor concentration [16] and intermolecular forces [17, 18].

Contact line dynamics of a droplet is directly associated with influencing evaporation rate. Recently, Zhang et al. [19] explained the role played by surface tensions due to the curvature of solid-liquid-vapor contact line as a correction to Young’s equation. Also, Putnam et al. [7] reported evaporation rate decrease with contact line de-pinning. Droplet evaporation experiments on a heated substrate reported a temperature gradient between solid-liquid/liquid-gas interfaces proportional to substrate thermal conductivity [15]. Moreover, highly conductive surfaces explain contact line region to be hotter than rest of the droplet causing thermo-capillary convection within the bulk of the droplet and a re-circulation flow to occur from droplet contact line to droplet center [20, 21].

Convection in gas domain is an important transport mechanism governing droplet evaporation. Vapor concentration gradient between droplet surface (i.e., liquid-vapor interface) and its surrounding air induces natural convection in gas phase [16, 22, 23]. Consequently, gas phase convection influence vapor transport and thus evaporation rate [24]. For example, the evaporative heat flux scales inversely with relative humidity [25]. Furthermore, heat transfer characteristic is sensitive to chemical bonding [17, 18]. For a droplet evaporation process, inter-molecular forces in liquid-vapor phase creates an activation energy barrier for

a liquid phase molecule to join vapor phase [26]. In addition, surfactants are also reported to have influence on droplet evaporation. Recently, nanoparticles in fluid have been a great research interest due to their effect on wetting behavior of the fluids. Nanoparticles tend to pin the contact line and are calculated to be in proportion to de-pinning energy barrier [27–30].

In 1977, Picknett and Bexon [31] introduced two extreme modes of droplet evaporation, namely constant contact radius mode (CCR) and constant contact angle mode (CCA). Droplet contact radius remains fixed (pinned) with gradual decrease in contact angle during constant contact radius mode (CCR) whereas in constant contact angle mode (CCA) droplet contact angle tends to remain constant with receding contact radius. Today, A dynamic droplet evaporation process is classified under four modes: constant contact radius mode (CCR), constant contact angle mode (CCA), mixed mode [32] (gradual decrease in both contact angle and contact radius) and stick-slip mode [33] (rapid pinning and de-pinning of contact line). Nguyen et.al [34] reported a non-linear evaporation rate for a dynamic evaporation process due to different evaporation modes. Since last two decades much has been studied, investigated and understood about the droplet evaporation process, please check references [7–15, 17, 32, 33, 35–47].

Several vapor diffusion based models have been used to predict interfacial evaporation flux and overall evaporation rate [34, 48–51]. Hu & Lardon [20] used finite element method to investigate vapor diffusion during droplet evaporation. Popov [52] used Deegan’s model [53] to predict evaporation rates at different contact angles. Popov’s model predicted: firstly, for wetting contact angles ($\Theta < 90^\circ$) evaporation flux diverges at contact line, secondly for non-wetting contact angles ($\Theta > 90^\circ$) flux is highest at apex of the droplet than any other part of the droplet and finally, at contact angle ($\Theta = 90^\circ$) flux is constant along the interfacial contact line. However, a constant vapor concentration model at droplet interface overlooks principles like evaporative cooling and droplet thermal resistance during the evaporation process. Thus,

Popov's model validation at greater contact angles and highly conductive substrates is being discussed. Experimentally it was reported that a liquid to vapor phase change causes droplet liquid-vapor interface to cool due to latent heat of absorption [54]. Also, recently Stauber et.al [55] reported evaporative cooling to increase with instantaneous contact angle of the droplet. Therefore, Gleason and Putnam [46] improvised upon Popov's model by including temperature distribution along the liquid-vapor interface. Total evaporation flux predictions by Popov's model and its modified/improvised model by Gleason and Putnam are compared with experimental results in section (4.2 and 4.3).

The specific problem of understanding evaporation rate correlation to droplet extreme modes (i.e., CCR & CCA) still persist. Experimentally, a series of approximations have been used in past to understand these correlations. Focus of this work is to (1) develop a controlled droplet evaporation mode with both the constant contact radius and constant contact angle (CCR & CCA) and (2) understand evaporation rate correlation to droplet evaporation modes.

CHAPTER 2: EXPERIMENTAL DETAILS

2.1. Materials

A clear acrylic polymer disk (1 inch diameter & 0.25 inch thickness) is used as a substrate. The substrate surface is micro patterned to make a circular shaped trench. This circular shaped trench keeps radius fixed or pinned. Fabricating a pattern spot on the polymer substrate of depth $\delta \approx 50\mu\text{m}$ and radius $R \approx 450\mu\text{m}$ can be referenced [56]. Deionized water is used for all the experiments. It is passed through a $0.2\mu\text{m}$ filter prior to use.

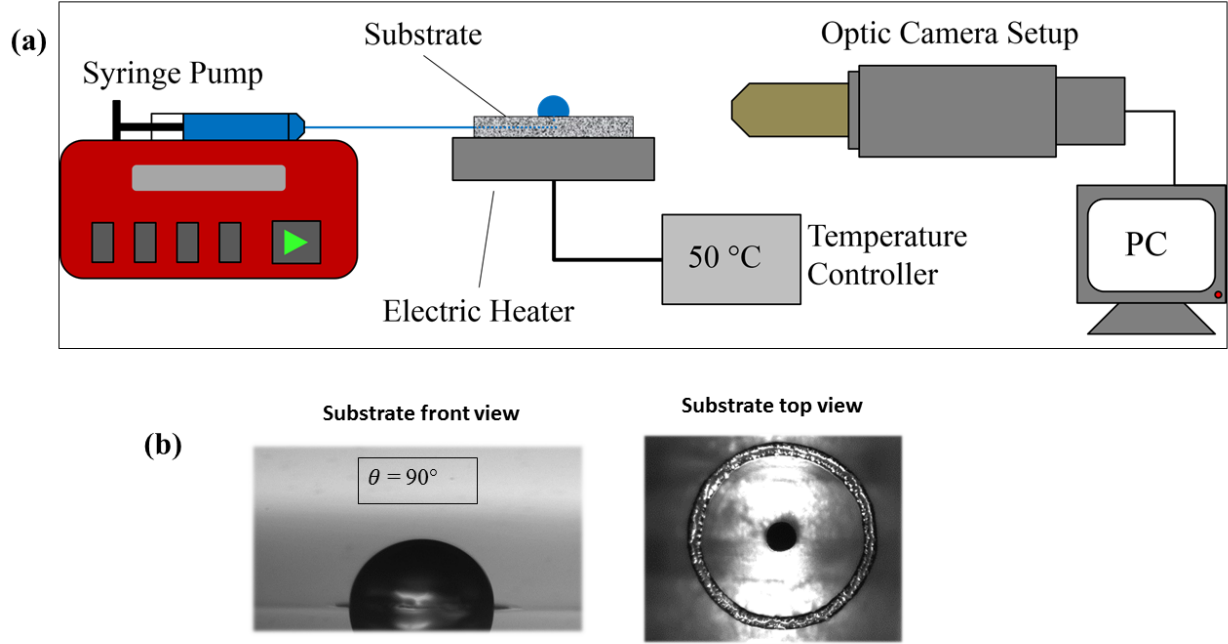


Figure 2.1: (a)Schematic of experimental setup for a controlled microdroplet evaporation experiment. (b) Patterned substrate profile.

2.2. Steady-State Microdroplet Evaporation Measurements

Figure 2.1 shows schematic of the experimental setup for steady state microdroplet evaporation. Computer controlled syringe pump drives water through a micro-channel implementing bottom-up methodology, connecting syringe exit to cavity at center to laser patterned circular trench. A Temperature controller coupled with $\sim 75\Omega$ electric heater is used to regulate substrate temperature ($T_{Substrate}$) within $\pm 1.5^\circ\text{C}$. A computer controlled CCD camera coupled with microscopic objective optics and LabView software is used for video recording. A customized LabView program is used for image analysis [7, 10]. The greyscale edge detection technique through image analysis software measures micro droplets apex height (H), contact radius (R) and contact angle (Θ) by fitting a circle to best edge/ contour of the microdroplet. Volume (V) is calculated by spherical cap volume equation [7].

Relative humidity with an error measurement of $\pm 2\%$ was monitored and measured during all the experiments. To avoid air bubble nucleation/formation the water was degassed in by vacuum pump. Steady state droplet formation requires two different volume flow rates, first flow rate to form a droplet with stable initial volume for a certain contact angle and second flow rate to balance the evaporation rate of a microdroplet. For example, building a steady state droplet with contact angle $\approx 110^\circ$ at 60°C and 45% relative humidity requires a first volumetric flow rate of 10nL/sec to form a $\approx 380\text{nL}$ droplet, then the flow rate is decreased to $\sim 5\text{ nL/sec}$ for steady state evaporation. Evaporation rate was experimentally verified by stopping the syringe pump after several minutes of steady state droplet evaporation and then analyzing the rate of decrease of droplet volume. To avoid error in measurement, evaporation rate is only calculated until 97% of depinned contact radius R_0 .

CHAPTER 3: NUMERICAL SIMULATIONS

The rate of droplet evaporation on a heated substrate is dictated by the concentration gradient between the droplets liquid-vapor interface and ambient environment. A diffusion-limited model is evaluated to compare the experimentally measured infuse/evaporation rates, shown in Equation (1). The experimentally measured contact radius (R) and contact angle (Θ) during steady-state evaporation are used to perform a single evaluation of the evaporation rate ($\frac{dm}{dt}$). The diffusion coefficient (D) and ambient concentration (c_∞) are calculated using the temperature and relative humidity measured during each experiment to accurately represent the data.

$$\dot{m}_v = -\pi R D (c_s(\alpha, \theta) - c_\infty) \left[\frac{\sin \theta}{1 + \cos \theta} + 4 \int_0^\infty \frac{1 + \cosh 2\theta\tau}{\sinh \pi\tau} \tanh [(\pi - \theta)\tau] d\tau \right]. \quad (3.1)$$

This model is a modified version of the diffusion-limited model reported by Popov [4] which integrates a solution of the local evaporation flux along the entire liquid-vapor interface. The model, which initially considers the concentration along the liquid-vapor interface (c_s) a constant, has shown to deviate from experimental measurements when evaporative cooling and convection effects are present [24, 44, 56–58]. High fidelity models capturing this neglected phenomenon have shown to accurately predict evaporation rates for most practical contact angles ($10^\circ \leq \Theta \leq 170^\circ$) [24].

The modification in the presented model accounts for the evaporative cooling effect by introducing a temperature dependent surface concentration along the liquid vapor interface, $c_s(\alpha, \Theta)$. This distribution is estimated using a mapping function, correlating the temperature and saturation concentration to a location along the droplets liquid-vapor interface (α)

for a given droplet contact angle (Θ) [56]. This a simpler approach compared to sophisticated simulations, and have shown to provide sufficient predictions for sub millimeter water droplets as presented in this study.

CHAPTER 4: EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

4.1. Steady state micro-droplet evaporation

A microdroplet evaporating with constant droplet parameters over a time period is considered to be at steady state. Droplet parameters: volume (V), radius (R), contact angle (Θ) and height (H) are considered. Technically, volumetric equilibrium of infuse and evaporation flow rates result into a steady state droplet. The volume of water entering a spherical droplet through bottom-up methodology equals volume evaporating through droplet's spherical surface. A laser patterned acrylic substrate pins the droplet contact line. Radius of the laser patterned substrate is $R_{Substrate} \cong 450\mu\text{m}$. Droplet contact line pinning leads to droplet contact angle variation. Furthermore, infuse fluid flow rate variation determine changes to droplet contact angle.

Fig. 4.1(a) represents a steady state droplet evaporating on a heated surface. Changes in droplet parameters are captured and recorded by an imaging system (high speed camera with 20X objective). Droplet evaporation profile is calculated by LabView software using a customized image analysis code. Droplet volume, contact angle, contact radius, volume infuse rate and evaporation rate are measured. The set point droplet parameters radius (R_0) and contact angle (Θ_0) are basic reference parameters for running the experiment and calculating the error in measurements. Figure 4.1(b) represents a graphical illustration of an evaporating droplet at substrate temperature $T_{Substrate} \approx 40^\circ\text{C}$ and relative humidity 50%. Volume of the evaporating droplet is $\cong 224\text{ nL}$ for more than five minutes, depicting a volumetric evaporation rate to infuse rate balance. Vertical dotted lines in the figure represent the period with constant droplet parameters. All parameters for experimental and numerical analysis are calculated during this period.

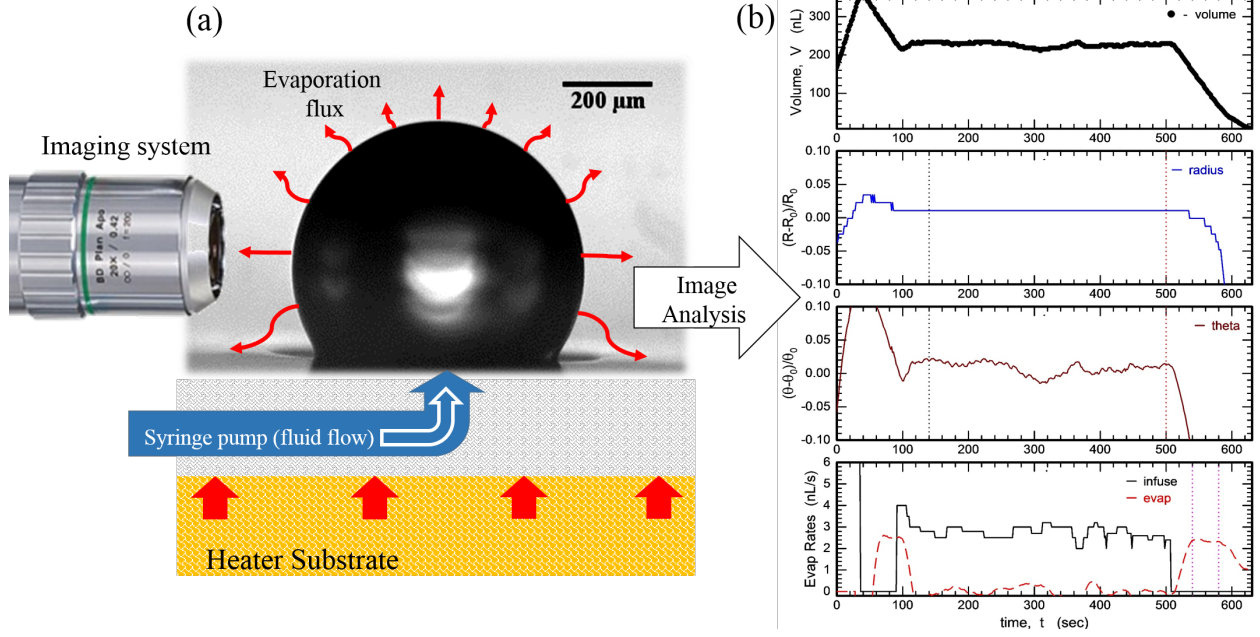


Figure 4.1: (a) Schematic diagram of the steady state microdroplet evaporation experiment. (b) Plots of Droplet parameters as a function of time (t). Vertical dotted lines represent steady state evaporation period. Experimental Details: $T_{Substrate} \cong 40^{\circ}\text{C}$, R.H = 50%, Volume(V) = $224 \pm 5\text{nL}$, Contact radius(R) = $454\mu\text{m} \pm 0.1\mu\text{m}$, Setpoint radius(R_0) = $450\mu\text{m}$, Contact angle(Θ) = $95.3^{\circ} \pm 0.8$, Setpoint angle(Θ_0) = 95° , Volume infuse flow rate = $2.75 \pm 0.3 \text{ nL/s}$ and Volume evaporation rate = $2.33 \pm 0.3 \text{ nL/s}$.

Contact angles of a microdroplet are explained by Young-Laplace equation. For curved surfaces, surface tension causes a pressure difference between the interfaces, dP . Pressure difference is directly proportional to cosecant of contact angle, since contact radius is pinned (constant) for steady state microdroplet evaporation process. The change in Laplace pressure for these volume fluctuations is small (e.g., $\Delta P \sim 0.01 \text{ kPa}$ for $\Delta\Theta \sim 2^{\circ}\text{deg}$). Pressure variance, dP in the micro channel connecting syringe to the substrate can be neglected in comparison to dP at droplet curved surface interface. At contact angles $\Theta > 90^{\circ}$ an outward force on the droplet interface naturally holds a stable droplet for a longer time period, whereas at contact angles $\Theta < 90^{\circ}$ an impeding force on the droplet interface causes an unstable droplet if infuse rate and evaporation rate are not in equilibrium. Steady state evaporation experiments are conducted with droplet contact angles $\Theta \in (80^{\circ}, 95^{\circ} \& 110^{\circ})$ on temperatures $22^{\circ}\text{C} \leq \Delta T_{Substrate} \leq 80^{\circ}\text{C}$. Each experiment with a specific substrate temperature and contact

angle is repeated to reproduce results. Best of five measurements are used to reduce error in measurement. These experiments are conducted to understand evaporation rate relationship with droplet contact angle and contact radius.

4.2. Droplet influence on substrate temperature

Results are presented in this section to understand the influence of water droplet evaporation on a heated substrate. A water droplet with constant contact angle ($\sim 110^\circ$) and pinned contact radius ($\sim 450\mu\text{m}$, due to patterned substrate) is used. These experiments are conducted on set point temperatures $30^\circ\text{C} \leq \Delta T_0 \leq 80^\circ\text{C}$. Set point temperatures are manually controlled with electric heater/temperature controller. A manually controlled set point temperature varies from temperature recorded on the substrate surface. An Infrared camera is used to record and analyze substrate temperatures.

Figure 4.2(a) presents infrared images of 0.25 inch thick heated substrate. These images compare substrate temperature distribution with and without water droplet. Substrate temperatures at the patterned trench with/without water droplet are compared. Lowest substrate temperature used is $T_{\text{Substrate}} \cong 31^\circ\text{C}$. A pinned water droplet produces changes in substrate temperature distribution and generates substrate cooling. Temperature of the substrate near the patterned trench reduces to $\cong 30^\circ\text{C}$. Similar experiments are done on higher temperatures to understand the temperature difference and substrate cooling effect. Highest substrate temperature used is $T_{\text{Substrate}} \cong 68^\circ\text{C}$. At this temperature, a pinned droplet reduce the substrate temperature by $\cong 4^\circ\text{C}$. Infrared camera records the substrate temperature as $T_{\text{Substrate}} \cong 64^\circ\text{C}$ at the patterned trench. Figure 4.2(b) compares substrate cooled temperatures ($T_{\text{Substrate cooled}}$) to substrate temperatures ($T_{\text{Substrate}}$). Substrate cooled temperatures represent substrate temperatures with a water droplet. Temperature difference ($T_{\text{Substrate}} - T_{\text{Substrate cooled}}$) varies between $\cong 1^\circ\text{C}$ to $\cong 4^\circ\text{C}$ from lowest to the highest temperature.

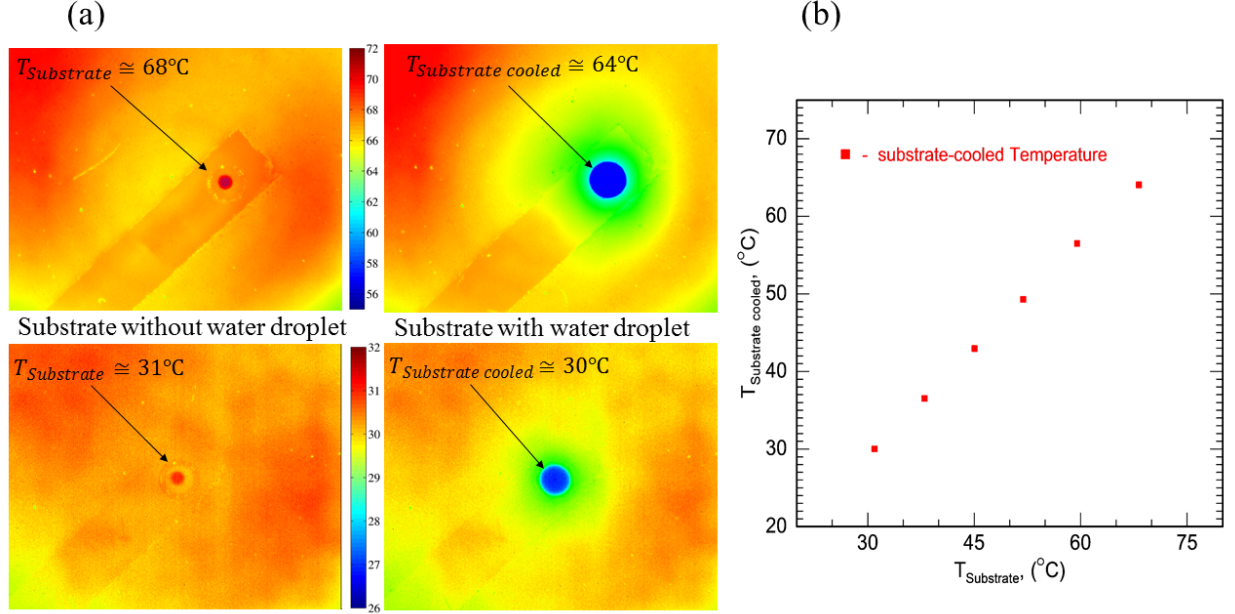


Figure 4.2: (a) Infrared camera recorded substrate images. Image details: $T_{Substrate}$ (without water droplet) $\cong 68^{\circ}\text{C}$, $T_{Substrate\ cooled}$ (with water droplet) $\cong 64^{\circ}\text{C}$. $T_{Substrate}$ (without water droplet) $\cong 31^{\circ}\text{C}$, $T_{Substrate\ cooled}$ (with water droplet) $\cong 30^{\circ}\text{C}$. (b) Temperature of substrate with droplet cooling is compared to temperature of substrate without droplet. Experiments are performed on temperature range $30^{\circ}\text{C} \leq T_{Substrate} \leq 70^{\circ}\text{C}$.

Figure 4.3 (a) represents temperature distribution of a heated substrate influenced by a pinned water droplet. An infrared camera's image oriented temperature scale illustrates temperature distribution over the substrate. The image represents substrate at set point temperature $T_0 \cong 60^{\circ}\text{C}$. Since set point temperature and infrared camera analyzed temperature vary, substrate temperature at $\sim 800\mu\text{m}$ and $\sim 2500\mu\text{m}$ from the center are compared. A relatively cool water droplet on a heated substrate tends to absorb heat and produce substrate cooling. Temperature of substrate increases along the direction away from the droplet. Similar experiment is performed on set point temperatures $30^{\circ}\text{C} \leq \Delta T_0 \leq 80^{\circ}\text{C}$. Figure 4.3 (b) shows infrared camera analyzed temperatures compared to set point temperatures. Furthermore, infrared camera analyzed temperatures at different substrate locations $\sim 800\mu\text{m}$ ($T_{Substrate\ cooled}$) and $\sim 2500\mu\text{m}$ ($T_{Substrate}$) are compared. Temperature distri-

bution at different surface locations explain the droplet cooling effect. At lower set point temperatures, temperature distribution over the substrate surface tends to remain nearly constant $T_{Substrate\ cooled} \cong T_{Substrate}$. Droplet cooling has a lesser impact on substrate surface at lower set point temperatures. Whereas, increase in set point temperatures increase droplet cooling impact. As illustrated in figure 4.3 (b), temperatures at $800\ \mu\text{m}$ and $2500\ \mu\text{m}$ from the center differ by $\sim 4^\circ\text{C}$ at highest set point temperature $T_0 \cong 80^\circ\text{C}$.

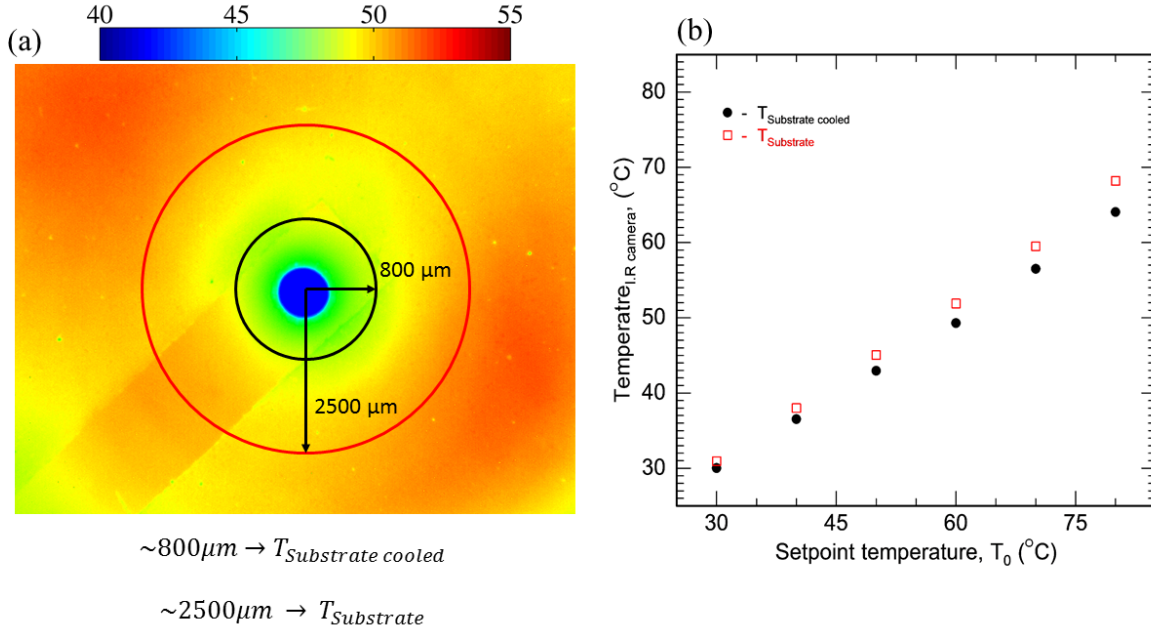


Figure 4.3: (a) Temperature controller controlled set point temperatures are compared to infrared camera temperature readings of a polymer acrylic substrate. $T_{Substrate\ cooled}$ refers to temperature near to laser patterned trench influenced by substrate cooling due to droplet formation. $T_{Substrate}$ refers to substrate temperature near to substrate edge. (b) Experimental data: $T_{Substrate\ cooled}$ (black dot), $\sim 800\ \mu\text{m}$ from center of substrate. $T_{Substrate}$ (red square), $\sim 2500\ \mu\text{m}$ from center of substrate. Experiments performed on set point temperatures $30^\circ\text{C} \leq T_0 \leq 80^\circ\text{C}$.

4.3. Droplet contact line influence on evaporation efficiency.

Droplet contact line influence on evaporation efficiency has been long discussed [13, 15, 38, 59]. It is a vital parameter influencing heat flux off droplet liquid-vapor interface. Results of droplet evaporation experiments in the past have correlated contact line dynamics to evaporation rates. It has been understood that evaporation rate decreases with contact line depinning [7, 13]. Evaporation efficiency for droplet evaporation process can be explained as a comparison of volumetric infuse flow rate into a droplet to volumetric evaporation flow rate off the droplet surface.

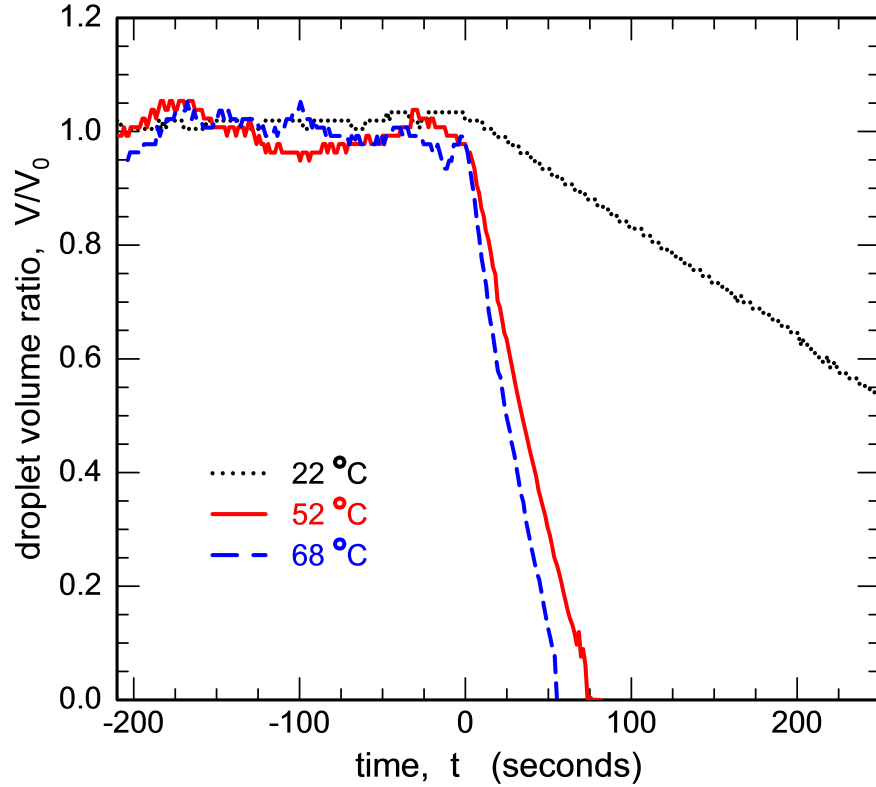


Figure 4.4: Dimensionless droplet volume (V/V_0) as a function of time for water microdroplet evaporation on heated and unheated polymer substrates. $T_{I.R} \cong 22^\circ\text{C}$, 51.90°C and 68.20°C are infrared camera temperature readings of the substrate for controlled setpoint temperatures $T_0 = 22^\circ\text{C}$, 60°C and 80°C respectively. V_0 is droplet volume at the onset of steady-state evaporation and time, ($t=0$ seconds) represents fluid pump stopped. Experimental Details: $T_{I.R} \cong 22^\circ\text{C}$ - {RH = 54%, $V_0 \cong 346$ nL, $\Theta_0 \cong 110^\circ$, $R_0 \cong 452$ μm }; $T_{I.R} \cong 51.90^\circ\text{C}$ {RH = 45%, $V_0 \cong 345$ nL, $\Theta_0 \cong 110^\circ$, $R_0 \cong 450$ μm }; $T_{I.R} \cong 68.20^\circ\text{C}$ - {RH = 51%, $V_0 \cong 350$ nL, $\Theta_0 \cong 110^\circ$, $R_0 \cong 452$ μm }.

Figure 4.4 presents non-dimensionalized droplet volume at set point temperatures ($T_0 \approx 22^\circ\text{C}$, 60°C and 80°C) plotted over time. Infrared camera measured substrate temperatures for the respective set point temperatures are $T_{\text{Substrate}} \approx 22^\circ\text{C}$, 52°C and 68°C . Plot illustrates droplet evaporation process from steady state evaporation phase (with constant infuse flow rate) to unsteady evaporation phase (without infuse flow rate). Steady state evaporation phase is represented by time in negative and unsteady phase by time in positive. Time, $t=0$ seconds on the plot shows fluid injection pump being stopped and the beginning of unsteady evaporation phase. All experiments are conducted at contact angle $\Theta \cong 110^\circ$ on laser patterned substrate to keep contact radius pinned. Evaporation period at this contact angle gives enough data points to increase data efficiency. Evaporation rate is known during steady state evaporation period since manually controlled infuse flow rate equals evaporation rate during the period. For unsteady evaporation phase, evaporation rate is calculated from the recorded data from the time syringe pump is stopped until contact radius depinning. Infuse to evaporation flow rate measurements in figure 4.5 are explained through this figure.

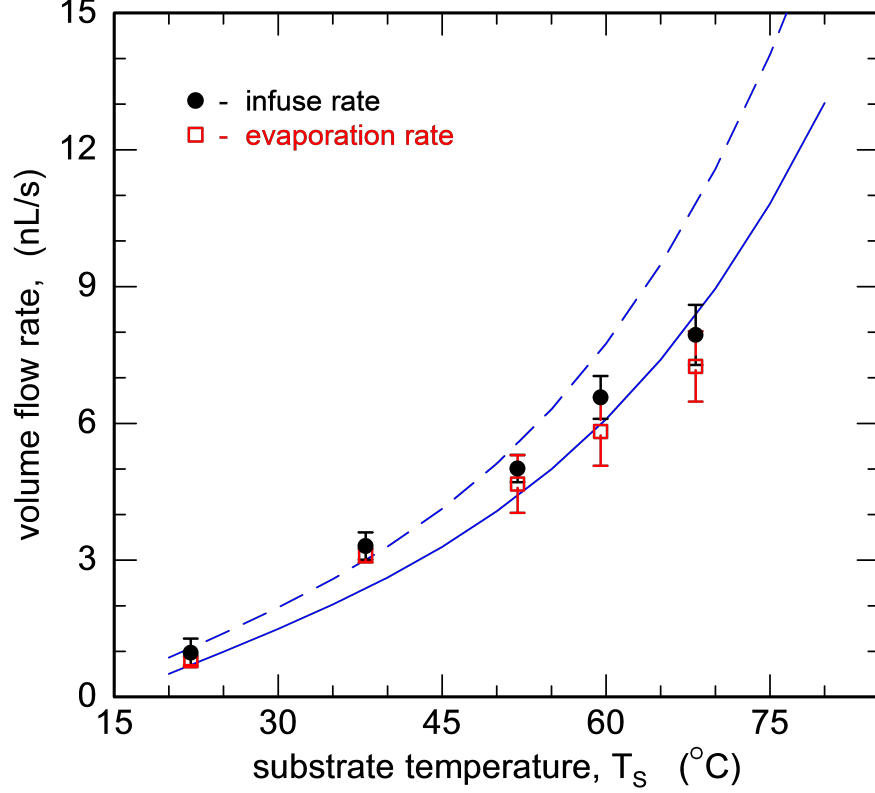


Figure 4.5: Comparison between the water infuse rate (i.e., steady-state evaporation rate at constant contact angle) and the unsteady evaporation rate for water micro-droplet evaporating at different substrate temperatures $T_{Substrate} \cong 22^\circ\text{C}$, 38°C , 52°C , 59.5°C and 68.20°C . The unsteady evaporation rate is calculated for $0.97R_0 \leq R \leq R_0$. Plot also compares numerical simulation results obtained from Popov's model (Dashed line) and modified Popov's model with variable surface concentration (solid line). Experimental Details: $\{\Theta_0 = 110 \pm 1^\circ, V_0 = 340 \pm 10.3 \text{ nL}, R_0 = 450 \pm 4.7 \mu\text{m}\}$.

Figure 4.5 presents infuse to evaporation flow rate measurements plotted over substrate temperatures $22^\circ\text{C} \leq T_{Substrate} \leq 70^\circ\text{C}$. Figure explains evaporation efficiency for pinned droplet and describes the effect of depinning on microdroplet evaporation rate. Individual steady state evaporation experiments are conducted at different substrate temperatures to measure infuse and evaporation flow rates. A best of five experiments are used to reduce measurement error and generate error bars. At a substrate temperature, Infuse flow rate into a steady state evaporating droplet is compared to evaporation flow rate of droplet with fluid pump switched off. The measured evaporation rate is dynamic since droplet evaporation is not controlled. It is measured till 97% of depinned contact radius. Results show that

infuse rate equals measured evaporation rate until the contact radius depins to a value less than $0.97R_0$. Volume flow rate predictions by Popov's model [52] and modified Popovs model [56] are compared to experimental results. Modified model tends to coincide with the experimental results for substrate temperatures $T_{Substrate} \geq 50^\circ\text{C}$. Experimental results at lower temperatures agree more to Popov's model. A good agreement is achieved as expected, evaporation rate reduces with contact line depinning. Moreover it explains that evaporation efficiency remains constant for pinned contact radius.

4.4. Droplet contact angle influence on evaporation rate.

Literature review points out that hydrophobic and hydrophilic surfaces have been used to understand a droplet contact angle to evaporation rate correlation. On a heated substrate, microdroplet with contact angle $\Theta > 90^\circ$ is observed to be more stable than microdroplet with contact angles $\Theta < 90^\circ$. Interestingly, liquid-vapor contact line has a significant influence on the heat transfer performance. Additionally, Droplet heating on a substrate also noted a fast and rapid decrease in contact angle below $\Theta < 70^\circ$ [47]. However, theoretical predictions and experimental results have shown that evaporation time for sessile droplet with acute contact angle is shorter than droplet with obtuse angle having same volume [60, 61]. It has also been concluded that at constant volumes, rate of evaporation is faster for smaller droplets [18, 20, 31, 62]. These experiments were not conducted at constant contact radius mode (CCR). Thus a firm correlation between contact angle and evaporation rate was not made. Evaporation rate is a function of droplet volume and at constant contact radius mode (CCR), evaporation rate tends to depend upon contact angle [43–46].

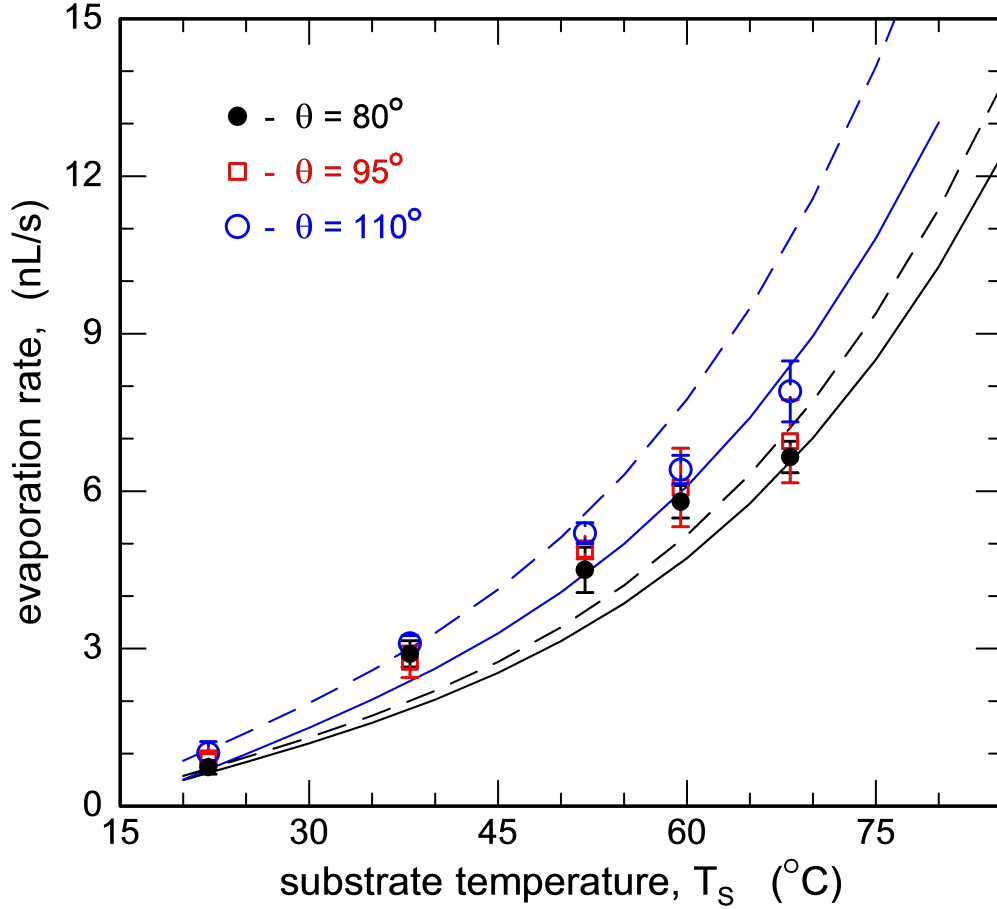


Figure 4.6: Popov's model predictions (dashed lines), modified popov's model predictions (solid lines) and measured (symbols) microdroplet evaporation rate as a function of contact angle. The effects of changing the contact angle during steady-state water microdroplet evaporation for substrate temperatures ranging between 22°C and 80°C. Data is provided for experiments at three different contact angles.

Figure 4.6 presents evaporation rate as a function of contact angle. Experimentally measured droplet evaporation rates on substrate temperatures are plotted. Multiple steady-state evaporation experiments at droplet contact angles $\{\Theta = 80^{\circ}, 95^{\circ} \text{ and } 110^{\circ}\}$ are conducted to understand contact angle relationship to evaporation rate. Substrate temperatures used for the experiments are $22^{\circ}\text{C} \leq T_{\text{Substrate}} \leq 70^{\circ}\text{C}$. A pinned droplet (CCR) is used for all the experiments to avoid contact line influence on evaporation rate. Droplet contact radius for all experiments is $R \cong 450 \pm 5 \mu\text{m}$. Plot also compares experimental data with numerical simulation results. Experimentally calculated evaporation rates are not dynamic

as in Figure 4.5, but controlled. Numerical predictions by Popov's model [52] and modified Popov's model [56] are used. Along the liquid-vapor interface, Popov's model implement constant surface vapor concentration. Additionally, its predictions fit the evaporation rates at lower substrate temperatures $22^{\circ}\text{C} \leq T_{\text{Substrate}} \leq 50^{\circ}\text{C}$. On the contrary, Popov's modified model uses variable surface vapor concentration and its predictions tend to coincide near to saturation temperature, $T_{\text{Substrate}} \geq 60^{\circ}\text{C}$.

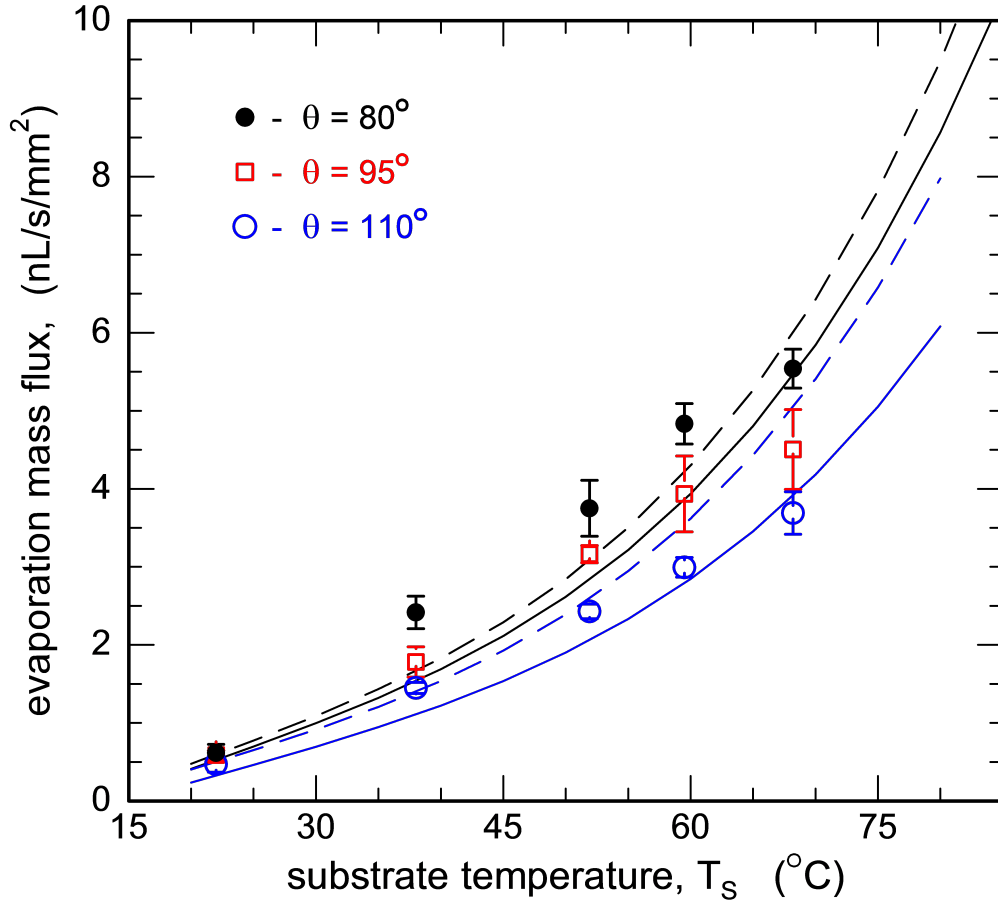


Figure 4.7: Evaporation rate divided by the liquid-vapor surface area plotted as a function of droplet contact angle on substrate temperatures $22^{\circ}\text{C} \leq T_{\text{Substrate}} \leq 70^{\circ}\text{C}$. Experimentally measured (symbols) compared to numerical predictions by modified Popov's model with variable surface concentration (solid line) and Popov's model with constant surface concentration (dashed lines).

Figure 4.7 compares evaporation mass flux at contact angles $80^{\circ} \leq \Theta \leq 110^{\circ}$ on substrate temperatures $22^{\circ}\text{C} \leq T_{\text{Substrate}} \leq 70^{\circ}\text{C}$. Evaporation rate data from figure 4.6 is divided by

the droplet's liquid-vapor surface area for evaporation mass flux. Experimentally calculated evaporation mass fluxes are compared to model predictions. Popov's model [52] and Modified Popov's model [56] are used for model predictions. As expected, evaporation mass flux decreases with increase in droplet surface area. Figure illustrates a pinned droplet (CCR) at contact angle $\Theta \cong 110^\circ$ and 80° to have lowest and highest evaporation mass flux respectively. Numerical predictions by modified model at higher temperatures and Popov's model at lower temperatures fit to experimental results. Popov's model uses constant vapor concentration over liquid vapor droplet interface causing prediction errors at higher temperatures (temperature distribution varies within the droplet [57, 63, 64]). Temperature gradient within the droplet at lower substrate temperatures $T_{Substrate} \leq 40^\circ\text{C}$ is nearly negligible, causing Popov's model predictions to coincide with experimental results. The modified model includes variable vapor concentration based on temperature distribution at droplet liquid-vapor interface. Since temperature gradient increases with increase in substrate temperature (droplet apex to substrate temperature vary), incorporated modification to Popov's model reduces error and squares experimental results near to saturation temperatures.

Putnam et.al[7] have shown that larger droplets with zero impingement velocity and pinned contact line have increased evaporation rates but reduced heat fluxes. In addition, Garimella et.al's [24] vapor diffusion-based model provides reasonable predictions of overall evaporation flux for contact angles ($60^\circ \leq \Theta \leq 90^\circ$). At these contact angles, evaporative cooling and gas phase convection counterbalance. Evaporative flux predicted by the model at $\Theta = 80^\circ$ for a $2\mu\text{L}$ volume droplet at 21°C coincides with my experimental results.

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSIONS

Numerous steady state droplet evaporation experiments are conducted at contact angles $80^\circ \leq \Theta \leq 110^\circ$. A laser patterned moat like trench on the substrate keeps droplet pinned (i.e., constant contact radius mode of evaporation). These experiments are performed at set point temperatures $22^\circ\text{C} \leq \Delta T_0 \leq 80^\circ\text{C}$. Deductions from experimental results and numerical analysis of steady state microdroplet evaporation experiments are reported.

The key conclusions from the experimental study include:

- A microdroplet evaporating at steady state incurs volumetric infuse and evaporation flow rate equilibrium. Droplet parameters {i.e., volume (V), contact radius (R), contact angle (Θ), apex height (H)} remain constant during the evaporation process. Steady state droplet evaporation experiments are conducted to understand contact line and contact angle influence on evaporation rates.

- A water droplet on a heated substrate influences substrate temperature distribution. Energy at higher temperature region (heated substrate) tends to balance lower temperature region (water droplet) through heat transfer, causing substrate cooling. Substrate cooling increases with substrate heating, (i.e., $T_{\text{Substrate}} - T_{\text{Substrate cooled}}$) increases from $\cong 1^\circ\text{C}$ to $\cong 4^\circ\text{C}$ on substrate temperatures $31^\circ\text{C} \leq T_{\text{Substrate}} \leq 68^\circ\text{C}$. Also, Temperature distribution due to substrate cooling vary radially from the center. Results illustrate lower substrate temperatures near to water droplet than further away. Substrate temperatures at $\sim 800\mu\text{m}$ and $\sim 2500\mu\text{m}$ from the center are measured.

- Contact line dynamics on evaporation rate is investigated. Evaporation rate efficiency scales proportional to droplet contact line dynamics. For a pinned droplet (Constant contact radius) evaporation rate remains constant and its efficiency reduces with contact line depinning. Numerical predictions by Popov's model and modified Popov's model are used for validation of experimental results. Popov model predictions at $T_{Substrate} \leq 40^{\circ}\text{C}$ and modified model predictions at $T_{Substrate} \geq 60^{\circ}\text{C}$ fit to experimental results.

- Experimental investigations reveal contact angle influence on evaporation rate. For a pinned microdroplet (constant contact radius), evaporation rate increases with contact angle ($\dot{m}_{LG} \propto \theta$). Whereas evaporation mass flux decreases with increase in droplet contact angle. Popov's model predictions at lower substrate temperatures $T_{Substrate} \leq 40^{\circ}\text{C}$ and modified model predictions near to saturation temperatures $T_{Substrate} \geq 60^{\circ}\text{C}$ validate experimental results.

APPENDIX A: MATLAB CODE TO EVALUATE LOCAL EVAPORATION RATE


```

1  %This MATLAB code evaluates both Popovs models and the modified
2  %Popov model with a temperature/cs distribution evaluated using
3  %the discussed interpolated models.
4  %
5  %Written by: Kevin Gleason
6  %           B.S.A.E - University of Central Florida (2014)
7  %           M.S.A.E - University of Central Florida (2015)
8  %
9  %
10 %Files need for a working code:
11 %   Temp_to_Cs_Func.m
12 %
13 %
14 %References:
15 %
16 %R. D. Deegan, O. Bakajin, T. F. Dupont, G. Huber, S. R. Nagel,
17 %   and T. A. Witten. Contact Line Deposits in an Evaporating
18 %   Drop. Phys. Rev. E, 62:756-765, Jul 2000.
19 %
20 %A. M. Briones, J. S. Ervin, L. W. Byrd, S. A. Putnam, A. White,
21 %   and J. G. Jones. Evaporation Characteristics of Pinned Water
22 %   Microdroplets. Journal of Thermophysics and Heat Transfer,
23 %   26:480-493, 2012.
24 %
25 %A. Briones, J. Ervin, L. Byrd, S. Putnam, J. Jones, and
26 %   A. White. Effect of Accommodation Coefficient, Curvature and
27 %   Three-Dimensional Flow on the Evaporation Characteristics
28 %   of Pinned Water Microdroplets. 42nd AIAA Thermophysics
29 %   Conference, July 2011.
30 %
31 %S. Dash and S. V. Garimella. Droplet Evaporation Dynamics on a
32 %   Superhydrophobic Surface with Negligible Hysteresis.
33 %   Langmuir, 29(34):10785-10795, 2013.
34 %
35 %K. Gleason, and S. A. Putnam. Microdroplet evaporation with a
36 %   forced pinned contact line. Langmuir, 30(34):10548-10555,
37 %   2014.
38 %
39 %
40 clear all
41
42

```

```

43 for Ts_input = 20:5:90
44 %%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
45 %%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
46 % Below are a few options to create the desired plot
47 %-----
48 %% Variable C_s Model
49 yn_cs = 1;
50     %1 - Constant surface concentration (Popov's Model)
51     %2 - Temperature distribution (Modified Popov Model)
52
53 %-----
54 %-----
55 %% Experimental Data Input
56
57 %Manual Data input (for Local Evap evaluation)
58 manual_theta_deg = 110; %degrees
59 manual_radius = 450; %um
60 % Ts_input = 42; %C
61
62 %-----
63 % This ends the user input section. Below is the evaluation
64 %%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
65 %%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
66
67
68 %% Vector Inputs for Variable Surface Concentration
69     Ts = Ts_input - ... %Ts Controller
70         (-0.00162*Ts_input^2 + 0.40216*Ts_input -9.0647);
71     if yn_cs == 1;
72         c_s = Temp_to_Cs_Func(Ts);
73     elseif yn_cs == 2
74         run('Briones_Data')
75         alpha_B = alpha; %avoid overwriting alpha
76         theta_B = theta; %avoid overwriting theta
77         run('Dash_Data')
78         alpha = [alpha_B, alpha]; %compiling data sets
79         theta = [theta_B, theta]; %compiling data sets
80         Temp_Dist = [Normed_Temp_Briones, Normed_Temp_Dash];
81         c_s = Temp_to_Cs_Func(Ts*Temp_Dist);
82         cs_fit = fit([alpha', theta'], c_s, 'poly22');
83     else
84         disp('Reason for error:')

```

```

85         disp('Invalid yn_cs Value')
86     end
87
88     %% Data Calling
89     R_dat = manual_radius*10^(-3); %mm
90     theta_dat = manual_theta_deg;
91     theta_rad = manual_theta_deg*pi/180; %convert to radians
92     Vi = ((pi*manual_radius^3) / (3 * sin(theta_rad)^3)) * ...
93         (2 - 3*cos(theta_rad) + (cos(theta_rad))^3) * 10^-6; %nL
94
95     %Other parameters
96     D = 26.1; %mm^2/s
97     c_inf = 0.56*Temp_to_Cs_Func(21); %56% humidity at 21deg
98
99     %%%% Integration Parameters %%%%
100    %defining 'tau' [t] limits and step size
101    t_del = 1e-2;
102    t_max = 10;
103    t_iter = t_max/t_del;
104
105    %defining 'xi' [x] limits and step size
106    % (legendre function integration)
107    x_del = 1e-2;
108    x_max = 10;
109    x_iter = x_max/x_del;
110
111    %defining limit and step size of alpha [a]
112    alpha_vec = 10^-3:10^-3:5;
113
114
115    %% Begin Evaluation %%%%
116        theta = theta_dat*pi/180; %converting to radians
117        R = R_dat;
118        alpha = alpha_vec;
119
120        if yn_cs ~= 1;
121            c_s = cs_fit(alpha,theta);
122        else
123            c_s(1:length(alpha_vec)) = c_s;
124        end
125
126    %calculating dM/dt

```

```

127     for ii = 1:t_iter
128         t1 = (ii-1)*t_del;
129         t2 = (ii)*t_del;
130         if t1 == 0 %singularity at 1/sinh(0)
131             t1 = 10^-4;
132         end
133         M_int(ii) = t_del/2 * (((1 + cosh(2*theta*t1)) / ...
134             (sinh(2*pi * t1))) * (tanh((pi - theta) * t1))) ...
135             + (((1 + cosh(2*theta*t2)) / (sinh(2*pi*t2))) * ...
136             (tanh((pi - theta) * t2))));
137     end
138
139     M = (-pi * R * D * (c_s - c_inf) * (sin(theta) / ...
140         (1 + cos(theta)) + 4 * sum(M_int))) * ...
141         (10^6); %converting to ug (result is ug/s OR nL/s)
142
143     %Rate of Volume loss
144     radius_steps = sinh(alpha)./(cosh(alpha)-cos(pi-theta));
145     for ij = 1:length(radius_steps)-1
146         dR_step(ij) = radius_steps(ij+1) - radius_steps(ij);
147         dMass(ij) = M(ij) + M(ij+1);
148         LocalInt(ij) = abs(dMass(ij)).*abs(dR_step(ij))/2;
149     end
150
151     LocalEvapRate = sum(LocalInt);
152     x = sprintf('Local Evaporation Rate for: Theta = %4.1f', ...
153         manual_theta_deg, Ts_input, LocalEvapRate);
154     disp(x)
155 end

```

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